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DEFENCE
OF THE
OBSERVATIONS

ON THE
FIRST CHAPTER

OF A
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MISCELLANEA ANALYTICA.

By D. Powell



L O N D O N,
Printed for T. MERRIL, at Cambridge. MDCCCLX.

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MISCELLANEA ANALYTICA

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D E F E N C E, &c.

THE same concern for the honour of the University, which prevailed on a person, who has employment enough of other kinds, to bestow some hours in examining part of a book, called *Miscellanea Analytica*, and to lay his observations before the University, whilst the Writer was a candidate for the mathematical professorship; would have inclined him to be silent after the election. He would have been content, that the new Professor should be thought by all, who either do not attend to, or do not understand the subject, to have gained a complete victory; had the Professor been content with a full display of his own strength, and a proper scorn of his antagonist; and had not, a little inconsistently it may seem, added complaints to contempt; crying out of one, whom he tramples beneath his feet, as *unkind, severe and cruel*. These are accusations, to which the *Observer* cannot willingly submit. He finds himself therefore obliged to defend his remarks. But he will do it as tenderly as possible. He will make no addition to his list of mistakes be-

fore produced; and is sorry, that ne cannot make it shorter.

The Professor thinks the *reflections upon the obscurity and perplexity of his manner of writing very severe and cruel*; because his view in publishing his work, was not to shew how well he can write. Nor was it the design of the observations to shew, how ill he writes, by instances of false grammar, unusual expressions, or perplexed periods; but by such faults only, as totally conceal from us, what he certainly intended to make known, the success, with which he has bestowed his *time and labour in the study of this science*.

The privileges, which the Professor claims under this title of a bad writer, are very numerous and extensive. He uses so many *peculiar facilities* in his reasoning, that it is indeed difficult to discover, by which of all the common principles of his science, he will allow us to judge of his work. If in the same algebraical process we meet with the letter *n* used twenty times; we are not to suppose, that it has every time the same meaning. No, he leaves it to the reader's sagacity to discern, that it stands eight or ten times for one number, and as often for another.—If in a computation, he substitutes one quantity or expression for another, we must not from hence infer, that he thinks them equal.—If we find $+$ put for $-$ and $-$ for $+$ not once only, but many times in the same problem; we must suppose, that the distinction

inction between these signs is a matter of fashion, rather than of necessity.—If, after the allowance of — for $+$ as often as he pleases, the calculation does not appear to be right; we must suppose, that the notation is unusual.—Each of these is, I think, the reply he makes to some one of my remarks. And I mention them only to excuse myself, if I say but little in support of objections thus answered. In these questions, the matter seems to be brought to an issue. In the rest, I will argue with the Professor, on such principles, as he has not yet expressly denied, that 4 is greater than 3, and that $1 + 4$ is equal to 5.

But has not the Professor hurt his own title to the privileges above mentioned? Or has it been done for him by a friend? One perhaps, who knew *enough* of *law* to tell him, that in a free state, as is the common-wealth of letters, *privileges are odious*. For whatever may be thought of the *Miscellanea Analytica*, the *Reply* without doubt, comes from a *good* writer. When he has any thing to allege, he expresses it clearly. When he has nothing, he supplies the defect with an handsome air of contempt and confidence. The principal parts of the objections he conveys away, and slips into their places some trifles of his own, with so much dexterity; that he appears to be one, who understands, as they say, *the whole game*. It will be necessary for me to call upon him to play above board; and I shall do it by stating in few words my remarks
on

on each proposition, and considering his answers to them distinctly.

The observations on the first lemma were these :

1. That it is not demonstrated ;
2. That it is not shewn to be true in any one example ;
3. That in many examples it is known to be false ;
4. That the Writer was led into this error by misunderstanding a passage in Dr. *Saunderson's Algebra*.

To the first observation his reply is, that *there are five steps in his demonstration, and that he knows not how to put in more.* I had called it only one step. He minces it into five. Let it be five, if he pleases. In four of them a child could follow, or rather lead him. But one is a Giant's stride. Here is the difficulty, in which the Professor leaves us. He asserts, that *the equation, which reduces another to m powers, finds all the combinations of m of its roots.* How are we to be convinced of this proposition? Surely it is not self evident. And we have the Writer's acknowledgment, that he knows not how to prove it. For that would be to put more steps into his demonstration. And yet this single point contains the very essence of the pro-

problem. All the rest without it is insignificant.

Thus the first question between us is made very short and clear. That, which he calls a demonstration, appears to be a mere *petitio principii*. If therefore it should be said again, that not one of these objections *has even the appearance of truth*; we may expect to be plainly told, whether the proposition before cited ought to have been admitted as an axiom, or has been demonstrated by any other Writer.

Or, if the Professor is unwilling to answer this question, let him take another method. Let him consider the lemma again, and again; let him make what use he pleases of the proof, which, he says, Dr. *Saunderson* has given of it in a special case; let him beg the assistance of all his friends, (and we may guess from the *Reply*, that he has one friend able to assist him;) if after all, he only gives us a clear demonstration, drawn out in form and method, of this single proposition, “the equation which reduces another to m powers, has, for its roots, all the combinations of m roots of the former;” I accept it as a full answer to all my objections.

But till our Author is furnished with such a demonstration, should he not have given us that lower kind of proof, which may be formed by the application of a rule to some few examples? One only is mentioned in his book; and, though the lemma is very extensive, no other is added
in

in the *Reply*. This one was called in question. And the Professor determines to rely on Dr. *Saunderson* for the support of it. But, in which of Dr. *Saunderson's* words, we are to look for the proof here alleged, it is impossible to conjecture. If there be any such proof of the necessity of using an equation of *six dimensions* in the reduction of a *biquadratic*, it certainly slipped from him without his knowledge. For the title of his discourse is *of the resolution of all sorts of BIQUADRATIC equations by the mediation of CUBICS*; and, having explained the reason of *Des Cartes's* method, he concludes thus, *hence arises the necessity of the intervention of a CUBIC equation in the resolution of a biquadratic into two quadratics*.

But tho' the Writer will not consider *Des Cartes's* rule to defend his own proposition, he will do it to find fault with my expression. He tells Us, that *Des Cartes* in order to reduce a *biquadratic equation to a quadratic makes use of an equation of six dimensions of this form*;

$$x^6 - px^4 + qx^2 - r = 0.$$

And then by the quadratic equation $x^2 = z$ he reduces this incomplete bicubic to a complete cubic: not observing, how plainly he here contradicts his own rule; according to which, if we would reduce an equation from six dimensions to three, we must apply to it one, not of *two*, but of *TWENTY* dimensions.

But

But this contradiction the Writer might have avoided, if he had liked another better. For he might have said, that the two equations

$$x^6 - p x^4 + q x^2 - r = 0$$

and $z^3 - p z^2 + q z - r = 0$ are both

cubics ; in one of which the roots are considered as squares, in the other not. But then he must have acknowledged, that in *Des Cartes's* method a cubic equation is sufficient. Let him take either supposition. They are equally inconsistent with his lemma. The difference is only in names ; concerning which I am no more inclined to dispute, than to answer the objection to my words, which he enlarges upon here, and returns to again in the 23^d page, and which amounts exactly to thus much, that $+ 3$ and $- 3$ ought to be called two numbers, not one number with it's sign changed.

But it was observed farther, that this rule is known in many examples to be false. My first instance was the most obvious one ; the case, where we know some of the simple equations, out of which the equation to be reduced is formed. In this the Professor *can hardly believe me serious* ; because *the equation must be first solved, before this method can be put in practise*. He should have said, in part solved. But what if it had required a complete solution of the equation ? It is not to the purpose to consider, in what cases this method can be used ; but whether it is just, and contrary to the rule here delivered.

Other-

Otherwise we must suppose, that the truth of the lemma depends on the skill of the Analyst, who applies it. And this indeed will be a new discovery in Mathematics; a proposition, which ceases to be true, when it ceases to be useful.

My other instances were taken from his own book, where equations are reduced by the help of others, which, unless I mistake in counting the combinations of 3 in 5 or 6, have not the number of dimensions required by this lemma. Nor is there, in the *Reply*, any attempt to shew, that they are consistent with it.

My fourth observation did not require a particular answer. The Writer acknowledges on the one hand, that he depends on Dr. *Saunderson* for the proof of this proposition. And on the other I shall readily confess, that, if he can apply that proof to his purpose, he is an apt scholar, and has learned from his master more than the master knew.

But the Professor concludes his reply to the observations on the first lemma with something, that might perhaps be intended as an answer to them all together. *The Observer*, he says, *could not but understand, that my lemma relates to a general method: the particulars therefore, which he specifies, are beside the purpose, because for particular cases peculiar facilities may be invented, which will not extend to equations in general.* I had mentioned, as contrary to the lemma, not only

only the way of reducing *all particular* equations, when some of the roots are found; but also the *general methods* of reducing equations of certain dimensions before any root is found; and had asserted, that there is *not any one* of them, which the rule here delivered is true. But this, it seems, is a method of methods; a way of finding general rules for reducing all equations; so comprehensive, as to take in every unknown case, but so confined as not to belong to any known one. Shall I beg leave to mention to the Professor one of the plainest and most established rules of logic, that a general affirmation is contradicted by a particular negation? His general proposition cannot be true, if it contains, what it evidently does, the particular propositions, which are acknowledged to be false.

All this is so evident, that it would lead one to suspect, that the Writer of this lemma had a confused notion of something, which he has not expressed. If he will allow me to depart far from his words, I will even venture to guess, what his meaning should have been. Instead of inquiring, what number of dimensions the equation *has*, by the help of which another is reduced; he should have inquired, what is the *greatest* number of dimensions, which in *any case* it can have. If he will thus change his problem, the answer he has given cannot, as far as I know, be demonstrated to be false. But it will still totally want both proof and use. He who would make

make the solution of an high equation easier, must shew Us, how to reduce it by another, which has fewer roots, than it has itself, not as many, or more.—Thus much of the first lemma.

My observations on the second were ;

1. That it is Sir *Isaac Newton's* solution expressed in a different form.
2. That the change of the expression is such as makes it less simple and concise.
3. That the change of the expression is such as makes it also less general.
4. That the Writer did not fully comprehend the change he had made.

To the two first of these remarks, the Professor replies ; *Easy as the Observer takes this (to change the form of Newton's rule) to be, it has exercised the best Heads of the last century.—Demaille has many pages upon the subject. Even the immortal pen of Newton has been employed upon the same Problem ; only changing the expressions, (as the Observer thinks) and destroying the original simplicity and conciseness of the excellent rules, which he had received from his Masters.* Instead of inquiring, whether we are obliged, as the Professor here intimates, to speak of Sir *Isaac Newton* and of him in the same terms ; or of comparing the solution of this problem with any thing done by Mr. *Demaille* ; I will only shew, by one short

short example, how the series was formed; and leave it to the reader to judge, what sort of employment he has found for the best Heads of the last century. Let the equation be $x^n - p x^{n-1} + r x^{n-2} - r x^{n-3} + s x^{n-4} \&c. = 0$ and suppose, that we would find the sum of the fourth powers of it's roots, then Sir *Isaac Newton's* rule is this; let $p = a$, $pp - 2q = b$, $pb - qa + 3r = c$, and the sum we are seeking will be $pc - qb + ra - 4s$. Now only substitute for c , b , and a the quantities before given as equal to them, and you have so much of our Author's series as belongs to this case. Do the same in three or four other cases, and the law of the series will be evident; far more evident, than it is made by the Author's account of it.

In this new rule no new idea is introduced. The whole mystery consists in merely substituting for single letters the several complex quantities, which each of them had been made to represent. And one would hope, that the Professor did not bestow much time and labour in this problem, as it is difficult to imagine, that it could give any man more trouble, than that of transcribing twice or thrice the terms of the series. The Professor indeed seems to be conscious, that it was not worthy of *Him*, though it has exercised the best Heads of the last century. For he adds; *If I have done nothing but change the expression of this rule, I have ill-bestowed my time and labour indeed. But the truth is, that I have solved another problem. Sir Isaac Newton's rule teaches us how to find the sum of the roots of*
any

any equation, the sum of their squares, of their cubes, &c. one after another. My problem is to find the sum of any preposed power of the roots per saltum without first finding the sum of the inferior powers. We can never deny our obligations to those, who shorten for us the operations of arithmetic. To find the high powers of the roots of equations having many terms by Newton's rule, is perhaps somewhat tedious. A more compendious method cannot but be acceptable. Let us only examine it a little. The Professor will not thank us for undeserved praise. And that we may not deny him any that is his due, let us take an example from himself, and such as will shew his improvement to the greatest advantage; let us seek by each method the sum of the 7th powers, the highest to which his series is continued; of the roots of the highest equation we meet with in this chapter. The equation is,

$$x^6 - 4x^5 - 2x^4 + 20x^3 - 11x^2 - 16x + 12 = 0$$

And by Newton's rule,

the roots	$a = p =$...	4
the squares	$b = pp - 2q =$...	20
the cubes	$c = pb - qa + 3r =$...	28
the 4th powers	$d = pc - qb + ra - 4s =$...	116
the 5th	$e = pd - qs + rb - sa + 5t =$...	244
the 6th	$f = pe - qd + rc - sb + ta - 6u =$...	860
the 7th	$= pf - qe + rd - sc + tb - va =$...	2188

This is the method of finding all the seven powers. The rules are short, regular, and easily

sily applied. But now, suppose, that we want only the last, and that we would determine it *per Saltum*; then let us take the rule backward, and, without computing the inferior powers, begin with $-va = -vp = -48, +tb = tpp - 2tq = 320, -sc = -sp + 3sq - 3sr = 308$ &c. But this You will tell me is only a more tedious method, and of no use. On the contrary I shall insist, as the Professor teaches me to do, *that I have now solved a new problem; that Sir. Isaac Newton's is a rule for finding the sum of the roots of any equation, the sum of their squares, of their cubes, &c. one after another; but that my problem is to find the sum of any proposed power of the roots, without first finding the sum of the inferior powers.* And if you are not sensible of my merit, it is only because I have laid my art too open. I should have made these substitutions without explaining them; and then by adding together the terms, which differ in their coefficients only, I should have arrived at the same series which the Professor, after the fruitless endeavours of the best Heads of the last century, has, with much time and labour discovered. — But let us apply it to the equation above.

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the other

$$\begin{aligned}
p^n &= \dots\dots\dots 16384 \\
- n q p^{n-2} &= \dots\dots\dots 14336 \\
+ n r p^{n-3} &= \dots\dots\dots - 35840 \\
- n s p^{n-4} &= \dots\dots\dots 4928 \\
+ n \cdot \frac{n-3}{2} q^2 p^{n-4} &= \dots\dots\dots 3584 \\
+ n t p^{n-5} &= \dots\dots\dots 1792 \\
- n \cdot \frac{n-4}{2} q r p^{n-5} &= \dots\dots\dots - 13440 \\
- n v p^{n-6} &= \dots\dots\dots - 336 \\
+ n \cdot \frac{n-5}{2} q s p^{n-6} &= \dots\dots\dots 1232 \\
- n \cdot \frac{n-5}{2} \cdot \frac{n-4}{3} q^2 p^{n-6} &= \dots\dots\dots 224 \\
+ n \cdot \frac{n-5}{2} r^2 p^{n-6} &= \dots\dots\dots 11200 \\
- n \cdot \frac{n-6}{2} q t p^{n-7} &= \dots\dots\dots 224 \\
+ n \cdot \frac{n-5}{2} \cdot \frac{n-6}{2} q^2 r p^{n-7} &= \dots\dots\dots - 560 \\
- n \cdot \frac{n-6}{2} r s p^{n-7} &= \dots\dots\dots - 1540 \\
\hline
&\dots\dots\dots 53904 - 51716 \\
&\dots\dots\dots 51716 \\
&\hline
&\dots\dots\dots 2188
\end{aligned}$$

We see then the whole meaning of finding the sum of any proposed power *per saltum*, so that we may continue ignorant of the inferior powers; and for this advantage we are taught to make a computation five or ten times more laborious, than the other.

In

In one method, we keep distinctly in view the several lower powers, whilst we compute from them the higher. In the other, it is equally necessary to collect the several products, which compose the lower powers; though they are so mixed together, that we cannot discern, what parts of these products belong to each power.

In his reply to the third remark on this proposition, the Professor has no patience with the *Observer's grievous mistake*; who can offer no excuse for himself, but his ignorance of the Professor's peculiar notation, by which the same letter in the same process is put for different numbers. He saw indeed, and mentioned, that it was easy to set it right; and he ought perhaps to have passed by this, as he did other privileged places, without too scrupulous an examination; and to have reserved his attention for the third page, which contains, it seems, a *full synthetical demonstration of the lemma*; a *peculiar species of demonstration, and peculiarly adapted to the solution of this problem*. It was first invented by James Bernoulli: he was a severe Mathematician, and never contented so long as he had left any doubt upon the mind of his Reader. He invented therefore this species of demonstration for the proof of such general propositions, as are derived by induction from particular cases. And the observer has not been accustomed to this kind of demonstration, though it be of great extent.—And here I must fairly own, that I was entirely unacquainted with this invention of Mr. Bernoulli,

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and not a little ashamed of my ignorance of so celebrated a discovery ; never imagining, that the Professor, a plain modest man, as I am told, would have set forth all this parade about a mere nothing. But how was I surprized, when I looked into *Bernoulli* ! How will the Professor be surprized, when he looks into *Euclid* ! to find that this new, this curious, this peculiar species of demonstration, first invented by *James Bernoulli*, and just imported from *Highb Germany*, is no other, than we meet with many times in *Euclid's Elements*. Our great Mathematicians despise that easy old book, with which we, people of lower abilities, are content to begin our studies. But let me seriously recommend it to their perusal. To encourage them in the undertaking, I will produce to them, out of this forgotten Author, the very species of demonstration, with which they are so much delighted, and compare it with the original from Mr. *Bernoulli* himself.

The proposition, which Mr. *Bernoulli* * demonstrates by the method here commended, is this. The series of numbers following each other in their natural order, and beginning from 0, is always equal to half the series of as many terms each equal to the last. And his demonstration begins thus. I suppose, says he, the matter to have been examined for some number of terms, and that having found it true to the term a , I there stop. Then he proves, that,

* See *Acta Erudit. Lips.* 1686. p. 360.

since

since it is true to a , it is true also to $a + 1$, and for the same reason to $a + 2$, and so on as far as you please.

In the same manner does *Euclid* demonstrate several propositions in his ninth book. Part of the 8th proposition will be a sufficient example. If from unity numbers be taken how many soever in continued proportion, the third, and the following terms, intermitting always one, are square numbers. The demonstration first shews, from the 20th definition of the 17th book, that the third term is a square number. But if the third be, then, by the 20th proposition of the 8th book, the third from that, or the fifth is; and again the third from the fifth, or the seventh; and so on as far as you please.

Now the difference, in the forms of these demonstrations, is no more than this. Mr. *Bernoulli*, though a severe Mathematician, assumes, as a thing sufficiently manifest, that his proposition is true in some small number of terms. *Euclid*, a more severe Mathematician, assumes nothing, which is not contained in his definition, or before demonstrated. And if Mr. *Bernoulli* is to be so much celebrated for this little departure from the rigid manner of *Euclid*; I shall claim the honour of a much nobler invention in the name of our Professor, who, in his *full synthetical demonstration*, assumes the truth of *Newton's* rule, the same in other expressions with his own.—

Whoever reads the propositions in *Euclid*, or *Bernoulli*, will meet with nothing in this form of demonstration, that can perplex him. Whoever reads Mr. *Mac Laurin's* short comment on Sir *Isaac Newton's* rule, will see, that the subject of this lemma can be made as easy, as the common operations in *Algebra*. If he would also see, how difficult one of the simplest forms of demonstration, and one of the easiest subjects may be made, let him return to this third page. He will find here some of those *omissions*, and those *unusual notations*, by which our Author delights to try the sagacity of his Reader, and which the Reader, when he discovers them, will be apt to call mistakes.

An omission of a necessary part of the law of this series, and an obscurity in another part gave occasion to my fourth remark. As to the obscurity, the Professor replies, that the terms, having been explained (as I had observed) by Mr. *Demoivre*, are become notorious, and to have explained them again would not only have been unnecessary, but most Readers would have thought it impertinent. Whether words once explained by one Writer, become for ever after technical, is not to be determined by any arguments. If therefore the Reader can be persuaded to consent to it, we will give up this point to the Professor. The principal part of the objection is, that so much of the law is omitted, as will make every term, except three, of the series determined by it, greater or less, than it ought to be. He answers,

wers, that, if the whole had been omitted, yet *the symbols would have shewn the law of the series to a Reader of any practise and sagacity.* We have the more reason to wonder, that they did not shew it to the Writer. This compliment to the skill of his Readers serves him for an answer to so many objections, that it were a pity to rob him of it. I will therefore pass on.

When I took notice of this defect, I also intimated to him, how he might supply it. If he would only read again the page of *Demorivre*, from which he had been transcribing, he would find something like what was here wanted. He is displeased at *an expression of so little precision as this* something like it. He has reason. For wherever in my little pamphlet I told him fully, what his proposition or conclusion should have been, there his answer is always ready, that this is the very thing he meant. We shall meet with some remarkable instances of it presently.— In the mean time we must proceed to the first corollary, on which I observed;

1. That the words, in which it is expressed, do not distinguish it from the lemma itself.

2. That it wants ease, and elegance, and use.

In support of the first remark I shall content myself with transcribing the very words of the lemma and it's corollary.

L E M M A II.

Data æquatione, invenire summam radicum, summam quadratorum ex singulis radicibus, summam cuborum, summam quadrato-quadratorum & denique summam n potestatum.

C O R O L L A R I U M I.

Ex hoc lemmate invenitur series, quæ suumæ radicem, summæ quadratorum ex singulis radicibus, cuborum, biquadratorum, n potestatum æqualis est.

One might imagine perhaps, that the latter problem was to be answered by a series, the other not. But this is not the difference. Our Author does nothing without a series.

Whether the other remark on this Corollary be just or not, can only be determined by the application of the rule to particular examples. And the Writer would have replied to it properly, if he had taken two or three equations, and shewn us, that the computation is neater and easier by this series, than by the rule out of which it was formed. As he has not, I will try it in a single instance; the first we meet with in his own book.

$$x^4 - 8x^3 + 23x^2 - 28x + 12 = 0$$

Suppose

Suppose that we want to know, the aggregate of it's roots, their squares and cubes; and any one acquainted with *Newton's* rule instantly sees, without writing a Figure, that the sum sought is $8 + 18 + 44 = 70$. But if we follow this new method, in the search of which almost all *the best Mathematicians that have lived within the last century, have been employed*; then we proceed

$$\text{thus: } \frac{8-8^4}{1-8} = \frac{-4088}{-7} = 584. \text{ and } -23.$$

$$\frac{2-8-4 \cdot 8^2 + 3 \cdot 8^3}{1-8^2} = -23. \frac{1274}{49} = -$$

$$598; \text{ and again } 28. \frac{3-2 \cdot 8-4 \cdot 8^2 + 3 \cdot 8^3}{1-8^2} =$$

$$28. \frac{147}{49} = 84. \text{ But } 584 - 598 + 84 = 70.$$

This is the shortest problem, to which the series can be supposed to be applied. If we use it for any high powers, the labour increases much faster than by the other method. And though the *Professors engages to write down the answer as fast as he can write with any care and attention*; it must nevertheless be owned, that he would sadly wast his ink and paper.

On the second Corollary these observations were made:

1. That the answer to the problem should have been confined to those equations, of which every root is less than 1 and greater than -1 .

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2. That

2. That the rule here given contains this, among innumerable other absurdities, that $1 + 4 + 16 + 64 \text{ \&c. in infinitum} = \frac{1}{-3}$.

3. That the Writer was brought into this difficulty by not clearly understanding the doctrine of infinities.

To the first of these observations, the Professor answers, *that what the observer says of the limits of this problem, is true; but that most readers would have thought him a trifler, if he had mentioned them. And that it is not once in a thousand times that limitations of this nature are mentioned by the best writers.* How good soever these reasons may be, I must take the liberty to give a better reason, why this trifle was not mentioned; that it was not known to the Author, when he answered the problem. This may seem a bold assertion; but the proof of it is extremely evident. No man ever attempted a thing, which at the same instant, he knew to be impossible. No man ever undertook to determine a question, in which he clearly perceived a contradiction. It is not indeed uncommon with Mathematicians to propose problems, that admit no answers but within certain limits; and to give general determinations of them, which, if you apply them to any case not within those limits, become impossible. Such determinations are as extensive as we want; and
can

can lead us into no error. When we pursue the problem into some impossible case, the general answer to it becomes not false, but unintelligible. But in the proposition before us, we have an answer, which extends beyond the possible limits of the problem; and becomes not unintelligible, but false. It is therefore as certain, as any rule of reasoning whatever, both that the demonstration here given, is no demonstration; and that the writer was ignorant of the limits, either of the question, or of the answer.—The following are very easy examples of equations, whose roots are not all between 1 and -1 , and yet the sum of their powers in *infinitum*, is given by the rule here delivered. S shall denote that sum.

$$xx - \frac{9}{2}x + 2 = 0 \quad S = -\frac{1}{3}$$

$$x^3 - 5x^2 + \frac{17}{4}x - 1 = 0. \quad S = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$x^4 - \frac{21}{4}x^3 + \frac{11}{2}x^2 - \frac{33}{16}x + \frac{1}{4} = 0. \quad S = 1.$$

$$x^3 + 2x^2 - \frac{11}{4}x + \frac{3}{4} = 0 \quad S = \frac{5}{4}$$

$$x^3 - \frac{11}{2}x^2 + \frac{17}{2}x - 3 = 0 \quad S = -\frac{5}{2}$$

A rule of this kind cannot be of any use even in the cases that are possible. For either we know all the roots of the equation, to which we apply it or not. If we know them, and they are

are within the limits assigned, the rule is useless. If not, it is worse than useless; it leads us into error. For there is an infinitely greater variety of cases, where it is false than true.

Among 'all the wonderful things contained in the reply, there is none more striking, than what the Professor says to my next remark; that the equality of *the series* $1 + 4 + 16 + 64 + 256 + \&c.$ to $-\frac{1}{3}$ is *not found by his rule*; that there are some *steps in the solution of the problem, which express it*; and *that the observer read his book with so little attention, that it is very plain he has mistaken these steps in the investigation of the rule for the rule itself.* The Professor forces me to depart a little from that respect, with which I am always inclined to treat him, when he makes it necessary in this dispute on every occasion to allege the very first principles of all reasoning. It had been kinder in him to have recollected, without obliging me to remind him of it, that an error in the investigation of a rule must be an error in the rule itself. It can never be otherwise, unless it be corrected by some opposite error; which in this instance has not *happened*.

But perhaps we shall not agree in these principles. Let us have recourse to our Algebra: The examples in the last page were chosen on purpose to suit this case. The roots of the first equation are $\frac{1}{2}$ and 4; the series of the powers

[of

of the former, $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} \&c. = 1$, that of the latter is $4 + 16 + 64 + 256, \&c.$ but both together, or $1 + 4 + 16 + 64 + 256, \&c.$ by the rule before us are equal to —

$\frac{1}{3}$. Now then let it be fairly said, and without

disguise, whether *the observer mistook a step in the investigation for the rule itself*, or the Writer did not at all apprehend what was contained in his own rule.—The roots of the second equation are

$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}$, and 4, and the sum of their powers in infinitum by the rule before us is $\frac{2}{3}$ or $1 - \frac{1}{3}$. Therefore as before $1 + 4 +$

$16 + 64 + 256, \&c. = -\frac{1}{3}$. Again, the

third equation has for its roots $\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}$, and

4. The sum of the powers of the two first roots is $1 + \frac{1}{3}$. But the sum of all the

powers by the rule before us is 1. Therefore the sum of the powers of the two last, or $1 + 4$

$+ 16 + 64 + 256, \&c.$ is $-\frac{1}{3}$. These ex-

amples will surely be sufficient to convince both the Professor, and his assistant in the *Reply*. And I may reasonably hope, that they will never again assert, either that *the observer* did not understand the rule, or that *they* did; that they will

will not again pretend, that this series is not formed by the rule before us, because 1 is neither 4, nor the square of 4, nor any other power of 4; or because no particular equation was supposed. Since the rule contains in it this assertion, that 1 added to the sum of the powers of 4 equals $-\frac{1}{3}$, and the absurdity is not confined to a particular equation, but is found in any, which has one root equal to 4, and the rest within the true limits of the problem.—The two remaining equations would shew us other absurdities of the same kind, as that $-3 + 9 - 27 + 81 - \&c. = -\frac{3}{4}$, and that $2 + 2 + 4 + 8 + \&c. = 0$. But this matter has been traced far enough.

Perhaps I ventured too far, when I undertook not only to point out the Writer's mistakes, but to shew also, in my third remark on this proposition, how he fell into them. The doctrine of infinites, I said, had perplexed many a scholar, and sometimes their teacher too. The difficulties into which it had brought us in this proposition, were evident; and there were other examples which appeared to be of the same kind. Thus when I found in a mere arithmetical computation, (for such is the preceding corollary, and the example to it) 4 put instead of the fraction $\frac{p-p^s}{1-p}$, p being 1; I doubted not but the Writer had come to this con-

conclusion, by conceiving some of the common reasoning, concerning such infinite serieses, as are formed from the division of a quantity by a binomial; to be more general, than it really is. But though it appears, as I conjectured, that he has no objection to such a proof, yet he will not admit it; because he *found out the same thing by one plain finite division, or rather knew it to be true without seeking*. It may not become me to dispute against the Professor's instinctive knowledge; but for his proof by common division, I cannot persuade myself that he will abide by it. For notwithstanding that it is *the easiest sum, that can well be imagined*, I must take the liberty to desire him to explain to me an easier. The design of it is to shew, that 4 is equal to 3. And no greater liberty is taken in this process, than his example has recommended to us. Let $x = 4$ and let $x = px - 3p + 3$. Then 4 being substituted for x , it appears that $p = 1$, or, since the Professor likes the expression better, *becomes 1*. Transpose px , and divide by $1 - p$, and you have $x = 3$, that is, $4 = 3$. Had x been put for any other number, the conclusion would have been exactly the same that it equals 3. And any quantity may be proved equal to any other, if we may divide them, as the Professor teaches us, by $1 - p$, when p is one. — But lest the ease of this example should disgust him, I will borrow another, which may perhaps be more agreeable to his palate. In a book of Algebra, I meet with these two equations

$$xxy - 9bby = 2bxx - 18b^3.$$

$$\text{and } xxyy = 4bbxx + 4bbyy - 15b^4.$$

Divide

Divide the first by $xx - 9bb$ and you have $y = 2b$. Substitute $2b$ for y in the second, and you have this contradiction $16b^4 = 15b^4$. Are we then to conclude that the two equations are inconsistent? certainly they are not. But x being equal to $+ 3b$, the quantity $xx - 9bb$, by which we divided the first equation, is nothing, and the conclusion $y = 2b$ erroneous. For tho' the rule may possibly not be found in the books of common Algebra, to which the Professor so often refers me, yet it is an evident rule of common sense, that if you multiply or divide, the quantities you would compare, by nothing, however complex you make the expression which represents that nothing, your reasoning is totally confounded, your conclusion, if you will give it that name, may be any thing you please.—When I wrote this observation, I was well aware, that the Professor could defend his computation by his Algebra a little misapplied. The objection in this place, was not that he neglected rules, but that he followed them blindly. That he might not mistake my meaning, I produced for him a plausible proof of his assertion. In this proof, which the Professor considers as mine, but which was designed entirely for his use, the quotients of the quantities divided by $1-1$ (for he will not allow me to call it 0,) are infinite, and the absurdity is from many eyes somewhat the more concealed. Perhaps he may now be inclined to accept my civility, and not so fond of shewing, that he *can prove the same thing by one plain finite division.*

Some-

Sometimes indeed a subtraction may have the form of a division. If from a compound quantity consisting of such affirmative and negative parts as are all together equal to 0, you take another such quantity twice, thrice, or n times, the remainder, if in appearance there be any, consists also of affirmative and negative parts, and is all together equal to 0. But the quotient of such a division, since the remainder is always 0, may, with the same propriety, or the same impropriety be called 2, 3, n , or any thing else.

The Professor having occasion in his 51st page (a passage we must consider presently) to divide one such quantity by another, where the expression is general, puts it down as certain that the quotient = 0. In a particular example, he makes it 4 instead of 0. The general determination is evidently inconsistent with the particular one. Each of the operations is a simple finite division. It is not possible that both should be right. Let us beg of the Professor to inform us, on which of them we are to depend; and rather to give us such reasons, as will stand of themselves, than to endeavour to support them by great Authorities.

With these he constantly abounds; but I have hitherto passed them without notice; because, as he does not always refer us to the particular passages, it is not easy to conjecture, how he has mistaken them; and because it is foreign to my purpose,

purpose, to enter into a dispute concerning either the meaning, or the merits of other books. But in his *Reply* to this objection he has fully shewn why he charges *his* error on Mr. *Mac Laurin*, Dr. *Saunderson*, Mr. *Demoivre* and Mr. *Nicholas Bernoulli*; and as their own words will be sufficient, I shall call upon them to vindicate themselves. He begins with Mr. *Mac Laurin*, who says, that *we are not to conclude, that the value of a fraction is equal to nothing, when the numerator and denominator of it vanish together.* Mr. *Mac Laurin* expresses himself accurately. If the numerator and denominator of a fraction are both variable and vanish together, the idea of its value is not lost, till they have vanished. The last ratio of them, *when they vanish*, is as much a quantity as any other ratio. And had the quotation extended only three lines farther, it would have been plain to every reader, that this ratio is the subject of Mr. *Mac Laurin's* observation. For he adds, *In such cases of the value of N* (the

fraction) *is found by computing* $\frac{\dot{P}}{\dot{Q}}$; *because when*
P and Q decrease, till they vanish, the ultimate
ratio of P to Q is that of \dot{P} to \dot{Q} . If \dot{P} and \dot{Q}
vanish at the same time, then $N = \frac{\ddot{P}}{\ddot{Q}}$. — Dr.

Saunderson's words are equally plain. Let us first of all suppose, says he, the quantities *r* and *e* to be finite, but to pass in a finite time from something through all degrees of magnitude into nothing, so as to vanish both together; if then upon this
supposition

supposition we can discover the ultimate ratio of r to e , we shall at the same time see the ultimate magnitude of the fraction $\frac{r}{e}$, and so we shall have all

we want.—Mr. Bernoulli too, as he is cited by Mr. Demoiure, gives a like account of the matter. He finds what he calls *the difference*, we commonly the fluxion, of the numerator and the denominator.—Every one of these Writers is careful to shew that he is speaking only of the limit of the ratios of two variable quantities, supposed to decrease *in infinitum*. And had the Professor applied their doctrine in a similar manner, the objection to his solution would have been only this, that he introduces fluxions or ultimate ratios into a problem, which may be solved by the easiest operations of arithmetic with a tenth part of the figures, and by most people, we may suppose, in an hundredth part of the time.

The Professor is so well satisfied with his answer to the last objection, that he gives himself but little trouble with some that follow it. My observations on the third lemma were,

1. That it is very difficult to find the meaning of this problem.

2. That, when we have found it, the answer appears to be false in every possible case, unless we insert exceptions not here mentioned.

3. That no demonstration of it is attempted.

To all which the Author replies. *If I understand him right, the exceptions which he wanted are mentioned in my lemma. However, he does not say my lemma is false, or that I have misapplied it.* It is wonderful, if these exceptions are mentioned, that he did not transcribe the two or three words, which contain them. It is more wonderful, that the omission of these exceptions, which alters in all cases the quantity sought, should be supposed consistent with the truth of the rule: as if, when one asserts, that $A=B$; another, that $A=B-C$; there was no opposition between them.—

On the first and second problems I observed;

1. That, as the problems are proposed, the second is only part of the first; as they are answered, the first is a particular case contained in the second.

2. That the answer to the second is given by a series, of which every term consists of other serieses, squared, cubed, and then twisted together.

The reply to the first of these remarks is, that *it proceeds upon an error of the press*; that the Author had proposed here but one problem, *the solution of which was divided into two articles*; but that *the Printer*, omitting the figure 2 which marked it, *made the second article into a new problem.* Nothing is more likely than such a little omission. But let us not deny the honest Printer his

his due praise ; for his care to make the following parts of the chapter consistent with the change he had introduced, by altering the 2d problem to the 3d, the 3d to the 4th, the 4th to the 5th ; and for his addition of a whole line, as a title to the 2d problem ; which, though utterly inconsistent with the *Author's* plan, was very necessary, when he had determined to divide it into two problems. *A little attention*, I think, could not *have discovered*, that such a regular, continued change was made by the Printer. But as the Professor has given us his word, let us accept it, and say no more on this subject.

The truth of my next remark could not be denied. Whether it be a fault, or not, cannot be demonstrated. It is merely a matter of taste. And whenever there is not demonstration against him, I will have the pleasure of submitting to the Professor.

The solution of the third problem, I observed, is right, when n is an even number ; wrong, when it is odd.—But the Professor tells me, that *even and odd have nothing to do in the case*, and immediately sets himself to support this assertion by an example in which n is three. And then instead of changing the equation by the series given in his book, he changes it by the rule, from which that series should have been formed ; and puts to every quantity $+$ for $-$ or $-$ for $+$. Having corrected the fault in this instance, and intending his *Reply* for the benefit of such readers only, as will not give themselves the trouble of

looking into the book; he supposes, that they *will be puzzled to find the Observer's difficulty*; and assists them with a conjecture, not a very lucky one, that I wanted to have the equation brought into that form, which his series required and I had blamed. But the change of the signs he speaks of as no *great* matter. Be it as little, as he pleases. Yet he should consider that in many cases it is the *whole* matter, in which the solution of the problem consists. Whenever the equation wants the second term, (and the common rules teach us to take away that term) the problem is answered by only changing one or more of the signs.

These were my remarks on his first chapter, not general, as he frequently complains, but each pointing out a particular fault in a particular passage. Upon a review of them, no one appears to have received a just answer. The chief design of them was to examine his abilities, as a reasoner. But there were added three short observations on his abilities, as a writer: that he wants art, wants perspicuity, and wants attention. And though these observations were not confined to particular passages, they were not left without examples to support them. Of the first defect I mentioned instances of various kinds, such as, when any one shall read the book, will occur to him in almost every page.—Of the second I gave a remarkable specimen; the more remarkable, since the Author has not attempted to render it intelligible, though he has found a pen, that can express his meaning.—To shew his want
of

of attention, it was my business to produce some plain mistakes in some easy process. The more obvious the faults, and the more easy the correction of them, the better would be the proof of my assertion. I chose therefore a common algebraic division, and asserted, that, besides many errors in the steps, the quotient was wrong, and the remainder wrong in *three* out of four terms. And these operations appeared to me so plain, as to leave no room for any dispute. But what proposition can be so plain? He asserts, that his remainder agrees with mine in EVERY TERM. Let us place them together. The true remainder is

$$\begin{array}{r} 9x^4 + 12x^3 + 2x + 6. \text{ The remainder} \\ \text{in his book } 4x^2 + 5x + 6 - 3x^2. \quad 3x^2 \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad x \qquad x \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} 3 \\ \text{He tells us, that we must read the quantities} \\ \text{placed under each other, as if they were con-} \\ \text{nected by a } \textit{vinculum} ; \text{ and adds, that though } \textit{this} \\ \textit{notation is not very common, it is not peculiar to} \\ \textit{him, and is sufficiently analogous to the common no-} \\ \textit{tation to be very intelligible to a reader of any at-} \\ \textit{tention and experience in these studies. I much} \\ \textit{doubt, whether an example of this notation can} \\ \textit{be found in any book of superior character to the} \\ \textit{Lady's Diary. But why does the Professor ima-} \\ \textit{gine, that I did not read it, as he does himself?} \\ \textit{The truth is, that, when I had guessed at his} \\ \textit{meaning, and put the quantities together, as he} \\ \textit{gives them, his remainder appeared to be } -9x^4 \\ -4x^2 + 8x + 6 \text{ agreeing with the truth in} \\ \textit{only} \end{array}$$

only one term $+ 6$. If we suppose the $-$ in the first line to belong also to x in the second, then the quantities properly reduced will be $- 9x^4 - 6x^3 - 6x^2 + 2x + 6$ and two of these five terms will be right. And if we allow another $-$ to be inserted, and another uncommon notation to be used, $-\sqrt{-3xx + x}$ instead of $+ 3xx - x$, than all the difficulties concerning this remainder are removed.—It may be said perhaps that these faults are easily corrected. Very true; and so is the mistake in the quotient; and so are *twelve* other small mistakes (*not one blunder*, the Professor assures us) in the Process. And for that reason, they afforded the fullest proof of the matter, for which they were alleged, the Writer's want of attention.

Among all these censures, I found, and was pleased with finding, some place for praise. But the Professor intimates, that it is not due to *him*. *My substitutions*, says he, *the Observer supposes to be new*. Whether they are new, or not, I own myself ignorant. There are many pieces of *Algebra*, which I have never opened. All that I pretend to in this science is to be able to distinguish good reasoning from bad. And it may perhaps be thought some confirmation of these pretensions, if I distinguished what our Author had borrowed from his own.



CAMBRIDGE,
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